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# General Recommendations on Immunization

## Recommendations of the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices

### American Academy of Family Physicians (AAFP)

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#### Summary

*This report is a revision of General Recommendations on Immunization and updates the 1994 statement by the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices [ACIP]. General recommendations on immunization: recommendations of the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices [ACIP] principal changes include expansion of the discussion of vaccination spacing and timing, recommendations for vaccinations regarding needle-free injection technology, vaccination of children adopted from countries outside the United States, timing of screening, expansion of the discussion and tables of contraindications and precautions regarding vaccinations, and addition of recommendations for each vaccine. The most recent ACIP recommendations for each specific vaccine, ACIP recommendations for each vaccine, and other information regarding immunization can be accessed at CDC's <http://www.cdc.gov/nip> (accessed October 11, 2001).*

#### Introduction

This report provides technical guidance regarding common immunization concerns for health-care providers who administer vaccines. Vaccine recommendations are based on characteristics of the immunobiologic product, scientific knowledge regarding the epidemiology and burden of diseases (i.e., morbidity, mortality, costs of treatment, and loss of productivity), the safety of vaccines, and the benefits and risks of immunization as judged by public health officials and specialists in clinical and preventive medicine.

Benefits and risks are associated with using all immunobiologics. No vaccine is completely safe or 100% effective. Benefits include protection against the consequences of infection for the vaccinated person, as well as overall benefits to society as a whole. Benefits include illness, improved quality of life and productivity, and prevention of death. Societal benefits include creation and maintenance of a healthy population, prevention of disease outbreaks, and reduction in health-care-related costs. Vaccination risks range from common, mild, and life-threatening conditions. Thus, recommendations for immunization practices balance scientific evidence of benefits for the individual and society against the costs and risks of vaccination programs.

Standards for child and adolescent immunization practices and standards for adult immunization practices (1,2) have been published.

programs and maximizing their benefits. Any person or institution that provides vaccination services should adopt these strategies to protect children, adolescents, and adults from vaccine-preventable diseases.

To maximize the benefits of vaccination, this report provides general information regarding immunobiology and provides information on administration and technique. To minimize risk from vaccine administration, this report delineates situations that warrant special precautions. These recommendations are intended for use in the United States because vaccine availability and use, as well as epidemiologic data, vary by country. Individual circumstances might warrant deviations from these recommendations. The relative balance of benefits and risks can vary. For example, because wild poliovirus transmission has been interrupted in the United States since 1979, the only indigenous cases of polio that time have been caused by live oral poliovirus vaccine (OPV). In 1997, to reduce the risk for vaccine-associated paralytic poliovirus, inactivated poliovirus vaccine (IPV) was recommended in the United States (3). In 1999, to eliminate the risk for VAPP, exclusive use of IPV in the United States (4), and OPV subsequently became unavailable for routine use. However, because of superior ability to induce immunity among close contacts, OPV remains the vaccine of choice for areas where wild poliovirus is still present. Until worldwide eradication of polio, continued vaccination of the U.S. population against poliovirus will be necessary.

## Timing and Spacing of Immunobiologics

### General Principles for Vaccine Scheduling

Optimal response to a vaccine depends on multiple factors, including the nature of the vaccine and the age and immune status of the recipient. Factors that influence vaccine response are influenced by age-specific risks for disease, age-specific risks for complications, ability to respond to a vaccine, and potential interference with the immune response by passively transferred maternal antibody. Vaccines are recommended for use in individuals at risk for experiencing the disease for whom efficacy and safety have been demonstrated.

Certain products, including inactivated vaccines, toxoids, recombinant subunit and polysaccharide conjugate vaccines, require booster doses to maintain adequate and persisting antibody response. Tetanus and diphtheria toxoids require periodic reinforcement or booster doses to maintain adequate immunity. Unconjugated polysaccharide vaccines do not induce T-cell memory, and booster doses are not expected to produce substantial immunity. Protein carrier improves the effectiveness of polysaccharide vaccines by inducing T-cell-dependent immunologic function. Live attenuated virus vaccines usually can induce prolonged, often lifelong immunity and neutralizing antibodies (e.g., live attenuated virus vaccines) usually can induce prolonged, often lifelong immunity. Subsequent exposure to infection usually does not lead to viremia but to a rapid anamnestic antibody response. Approximately 90%–95% of recipients of a single dose of a parenterally administered live vaccine at the recommended age (e.g., measles, mumps, rubella, and yellow fever), develop protective antibody within 2 weeks of the dose. However, because a limited proportion of recipients do not respond to a first dose, a second dose is recommended to provide another opportunity to develop immunity (6). The majority of persons who fail to respond to a second dose (7). Similarly, approximately 20% of persons aged  $\geq 13$  years fail to respond to the first dose of varicella vaccine (8).

The recommended childhood vaccination schedule is revised annually and is published each January. Recommendations for adults are published less frequently, except for influenza vaccine recommendations, which are published annually. Physicians and other health-care providers should follow the most up-to-date schedules, which are available from CDC's National Immunization Program website at <http://www.cdc.gov/nip>.

### Spacing of Multiple Doses of the Same Antigen

Vaccination providers are encouraged to adhere as closely as possible to the recommended childhood immunization schedule. The recommended ages and intervals between doses of multidose antigens provide optimal protection or have the best evidence of effectiveness. Recommended intervals between doses are provided in this report (Table 1).

In certain circumstances, administering doses of a multidose vaccine at shorter than the recommended intervals might be necessary. This is true when a child is behind on the schedule and needs to be brought up-to-date as quickly as possible or when international travel is impending. In these situations, shorter intervals between doses than those recommended for routine vaccination. Although the effectiveness of all accelerated intervals has not been studied, the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices (ACIP) believes that the immune response when accelerated intervals are used provides adequate protection. The accelerated, or minimum, intervals and ages that can be used for scheduling catch-up vaccinations are listed in Table 1. Doses should not be administered at intervals less than these minimum intervals or earlier than the minimum age.\*

In clinical practice, vaccine doses occasionally are administered at intervals less than the minimum interval or at ages younger than the minimum age. Administering doses close together or at too young an age can lead to a suboptimal immune response. However, administering a dose at a limited number of days before the minimum interval or age is unlikely to have a substantially negative effect on the immune response to that dose. Therefore, ACIP recommends that doses administered at intervals less than the minimum interval or age be counted as valid.† However, because of its unique schedule, this recommendation does not apply to the measles, mumps, and rubella (MMR) vaccine. Doses administered  $\geq 4$  days earlier than the minimum interval or age should not be counted as valid doses and should be repeated as age-appropriate. If a dose is administered at an interval shorter than the recommended minimum interval as provided in this report (Table 1), the dose is considered an invalid dose by the recommended minimum interval. For example, if *Haemophilus influenzae* type b (Hib) vaccine administered only 2 weeks apart, dose two is invalid and should be repeated. The repeat dose should be administered  $\geq 4$  weeks after the invalid dose. Doses administered  $\geq 5$  days before the minimum age should be repeated on  $\geq 4$  weeks after the invalid dose. For example, if varicella vaccine were administered at age 10 months, the repeat dose would be administered at the child's next birthday.

Certain vaccines produce increased rates of local or systemic reactions in certain recipients when administered too frequently. Such reactions are thought to result from the formation of antibodies to the vaccine components (e.g., pediatric diphtheria-tetanus toxoid [DT], and tetanus toxoid) (10,11). Such reactions are thought to result from the formation of antibodies to the vaccine components. Keeping accurate vaccination records, maintaining patient histories, and adhering to recommended schedules can decrease the incidence of such reactions.

## Simultaneous Administration

Experimental evidence and extensive clinical experience have strengthened the scientific basis for administering vaccines simultaneously (combined in the same syringe). Simultaneously administering all vaccines for which a person is eligible is critical, including simultaneous administration increases the probability that a child will be fully immunized at the appropriate age. A study conducted in 1999 found that approximately one third of measles cases among unvaccinated but vaccine-eligible preschool children could have been prevented if they had received the same visit when another vaccine was administered (12). Simultaneous administration also is critical when preparing for foreign travel, as a child who will return for further doses of vaccine.

Simultaneously administering the most widely used live and inactivated vaccines have produced seroconversion rates and rates of adverse reactions when the vaccines are administered separately (13--16). Routinely administering all vaccines simultaneously is recommended for all persons who receive them and for whom no specific contraindications exist at the time of the visit. Administering combined MMR vaccine (measles, mumps, and rubella vaccines at different sites). Therefore, no medical basis exists for administering these vaccines separately. The preferred MMR combined vaccine (6). Administering separate antigens would result in a delay in protection for the deferred vaccines administered on the same day is identical to vaccines administered a month apart (17). No evidence exists that OPV vaccines. OPV can be administered simultaneously or at any interval before or after parenteral live vaccines. No data exist regarding typhoid vaccine when administered concurrently or within 30 days of live virus vaccines. In the absence of such data, if typhoid vaccination is delayed because of administration of virus vaccines (18).

Simultaneously administering pneumococcal polysaccharide vaccine and inactivated influenza vaccine elicits a satisfactory response and does not increase the incidence or severity of adverse reactions (19). Simultaneously administering pneumococcal polysaccharide vaccine and inactivated influenza vaccine is recommended for all persons for whom both vaccines are indicated.

Hepatitis B vaccine administered with yellow fever vaccine is as safe and immunogenic as when these vaccines are administered separately. Simultaneously administering hepatitis B vaccine and yellow fever vaccine have been administered safely at the same visit and without reduction of immunogenicity of each of the component vaccines. Depending on vaccines administered in the first year of life, children aged 12--15 months can receive  $\leq 7$  injections during a single visit (e.g., conjugate, diphtheria and tetanus toxoids and acellular pertussis [DTaP], IPV, and hepatitis B vaccines). To help reduce the number of visits, the IPV primary series can be completed before the child's first birthday. MMR and varicella vaccines should be administered at or after the first birthday. The majority of children aged 1 year who have received two (polyribosylribitol phosphate-meningococcal conjugate vaccine have developed protection (23,24). The third (PRP-OMP) or fourth (PRP-T, HbOC) dose of pneumococcal conjugate vaccines are critical in boosting antibody titer and ensuring continued protection (24--26). However, the second dose of conjugate series can be deferred until ages 15--18 months for children who are likely to return for future visits. The fourth dose of conjugate series can be administered as early as age 12 months under certain circumstances (25). For infants at low risk for hepatitis B, the first dose can be administered at any time during ages 6--18 months. Recommended spacing of doses should be maintained (Table 1).

Use of combination vaccines can reduce the number of injections required at an office visit. Licensed combination vaccines are available for use when both components are indicated and its other components are not contraindicated. Use of licensed combination vaccines is preferred over separate component vaccines (27). Only combination vaccines approved by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) should be used. Only one combination vaccine (DTaP and PRP-T Hib vaccine, manufactured by Sanofi Pasteur) is FDA-approved for mixing in the same syringe. This vaccine should not be used for primary vaccination in infant or for booster after any Hib vaccine.

## Nonsimultaneous Administration

Inactivated vaccines do not interfere with the immune response to other inactivated vaccines or to live vaccines. An inactivated vaccine can be administered simultaneously or at any time before or after a different inactivated vaccine or live vaccine (Table 2).

The immune response to one live-virus vaccine might be impaired if administered within 30 days of another live-virus vaccine. There is no evidence of interference between live vaccines. In a study conducted in two U.S. health maintenance organizations, persons who received a second live-virus vaccine within 30 days of the first had an increased risk for varicella vaccine failure (i.e., varicella disease in a vaccinated person) of 2.5-fold compared with those who received the second vaccine before or  $\geq 30$  days after MMR (30). In contrast, a 1999 study determined that the response to yellow fever vaccine is not affected if administered 1--27 days earlier (21). The effect of nonsimultaneously administering rubella, mumps, varicella, and yellow fever vaccine is not clear. To minimize the potential risk for interference, parenterally administered live vaccines not administered on the same day should be administered at least 4 weeks apart. If parenterally administered live vaccines are separated by  $< 4$  weeks, the vaccine administered second should be repeated. The repeat dose should be administered  $\geq 4$  weeks after the last, invalid dose. Yellow fever vaccine can be administered at any time before, concurrent with, or after another live vaccine. Ty21a typhoid vaccine and parenteral live vaccines (i.e., MMR, varicella, yellow fever) can be administered simultaneously or sequentially, if indicated.

## Spacing of Antibody-Containing Products and Vaccines

### Live Vaccines

Ty21a typhoid and yellow fever vaccines can be administered at any time before, concurrent with, or after administering any other vaccine (e.g., hepatitis B immune globulin and rabies immune globulin). Blood (e.g., whole blood, packed red blood cells, and plasma) and

immune globulin, hyperimmune globulin, and intravenous immune globulin [IGIV]) can inhibit the immune response to measles. The effect of blood and immune globulin preparations on the response to mumps and varicella vaccines is unknown, but contains antibodies to these viruses. Blood products available in the United States are unlikely to contain a substantial amount of antibody at the time that interference with parenteral live vaccination (except yellow fever vaccine) can persist after the antibody-containing specific antibody contained in the product (31--33). Therefore, after an antibody-containing product is received, parenteral live vaccination should be delayed until the passive antibody has degraded (Table 3). Recommended intervals between receipt of various blood products and vaccine are listed in this report (Table 4). If a dose of parenteral live-virus vaccine (except yellow fever vaccine) is administered at an interval shorter than recommended in this report, the vaccine dose should be repeated unless serologic testing indicates a response. Serologic testing should be performed after the interval indicated for the antibody-containing product (Table 4).

Although passively acquired antibodies can interfere with the response to rubella vaccine, the low dose of anti-Rho(D) globulin has been demonstrated to reduce the response to the RA27/3 strain rubella vaccine (34). Because of the importance of rubella immunization, the postpartum vaccination of rubella-susceptible women with rubella or MMR vaccine should not be delayed because of receipt of a blood product during the last trimester of pregnancy or at delivery. These women should be vaccinated immediately after delivery to provide immunity to rubella and, if necessary, to measles (6).

Interference can occur if administering an antibody-containing product becomes necessary after administering MMR, its interference with vaccine virus replication and stimulation of immunity will occur 1--2 weeks after vaccination. Thus, if the interval between administration of a vaccine and subsequent administration of an antibody-containing product is <14 days, vaccination should be repeated after the recommended interval indicates that antibodies were produced.

A humanized mouse monoclonal antibody product (palivizumab) is available for prevention of respiratory syncytial virus infection. This product contains only antibody to respiratory syncytial virus; hence, it will not interfere with immune response to live or inactivated vaccines.

Antibody-containing products interact less with inactivated vaccines, toxoids, recombinant subunit, and polysaccharide vaccines. Administering inactivated vaccines and toxoids either simultaneously with or at any interval before or after receipt of an antibody-containing product will not impair development of a protective antibody response (Table 3). The vaccine or toxoid and antibody preparation should be administered at the recommended dose. Increasing the vaccine dose volume or number of vaccinations is not indicated or recommended.

### **Interchangeability of Vaccines from Different Manufacturers**

Numerous vaccines are available from different manufacturers, and these vaccines usually are not identical in formulation. Manufacturers use different production processes, and their products might contain different concentrations of active ingredients and preservatives.

Available data indicate that infants who receive sequential doses of different Hib conjugate, hepatitis B, and hepatitis A vaccines after a complete primary series (37--40). All brands of Hib conjugate, hepatitis B, and hepatitis A vaccines are interchangeable. If different brands of Hib conjugate vaccine are administered, a total of three doses is considered adequate for the primary series among children 12--18 months of age. Hib conjugate vaccine can be used for the booster dose at ages 12--18 months.

Data are limited regarding the safety, immunogenicity, and efficacy of using acellular pertussis (as DTaP) vaccines from different manufacturers in a pertussis series. Available data from one study indicate that, for the first three doses of the DTaP series, one or two doses of a different DTaP vaccine followed by Infanrix® (manufactured by GlaxoSmithKline) for the remaining dose(s) is comparable to three doses of Tripedal® (manufactured by Aventis) followed by antibodies to diphtheria, tetanus, and pertussis toxoid, and filamentous hemagglutinin (41). However, in the absence of a controlled trial, the relevance of these immunogenicity data for protection against pertussis is unknown. Whenever feasible, the same brand of vaccine should be used throughout the series; however, vaccination providers might not know or have available the type of DTaP vaccine in a particular situation, any DTaP vaccine should be used to continue or complete the series. Vaccination should not be deferred because the type of vaccine is unknown (25,42).

### **Lapsed Vaccination Schedule**

Vaccination providers are encouraged to administer vaccines as close to the recommended intervals as possible. However, lapses do not reduce final antibody concentrations, although protection might not be attained until the recommended number of doses is received. A vaccination schedule does not require restarting the entire series of a vaccine or toxoid or the addition of extra doses.

### **Unknown or Uncertain Vaccination Status**

Vaccination providers frequently encounter persons who do not have adequate documentation of vaccinations. Providers should obtain a written record of vaccination. With the exception of pneumococcal polysaccharide vaccine (43), self-reported doses of vaccine without written documentation should not be used. Although vaccinations should not be postponed if records cannot be found, an attempt to locate missing records should be made. This includes checking with the health department and searching for a personally held record. If records cannot be located, these persons should be considered susceptible and vaccinated according to the recommended vaccination schedule. Serologic testing for immunity is an alternative to vaccination for certain antigens (e.g., measles, mumps, hepatitis B, and poliovirus) (see Vaccination of Internationally Adopted Children).

### **Contraindications and Precautions**

Contraindications and precautions to vaccination dictate circumstances when vaccines will not be administered. The majority

temporary, and the vaccination can be administered later. A contraindication is a condition in a recipient that increases the risk of a serious adverse reaction and should not be administered when a contraindication is present. For example, administering influenza vaccine to a person with an acute or severe illness or death of the recipient.

National standards for pediatric immunization practices have been established and include true contraindications and precautions. A true contraindication applicable to all vaccines is a history of a severe allergic reaction after a prior dose of vaccine or to a vaccine component (e.g., severe allergic reaction to a vaccine component or to a vaccine desensitized). Severely immunocompromised persons should not receive live vaccines. Children who experience an encephalopathy after a dose of diphtheria and tetanus toxoids and whole-cell pertussis vaccine (DTP) or DTaP not attributable to another identifiable vaccine that contains pertussis. Because of the theoretical risk to the fetus, women known to be pregnant should not receive live vaccines (see *Contraindications and Precautions During Pregnancy*).

A precaution is a condition in a recipient that might increase the risk for a serious adverse reaction or that might compromise the effectiveness of the vaccine (e.g., administering measles vaccine to a person with passive immunity to measles from a blood transfusion). Injury could result from a reaction to the vaccine that would not have otherwise been expected; however, the risk for this happening is less than expected. In certain circumstances, vaccinations should be deferred when a precaution is present. However, a vaccination might be indicated if the benefits of protection from the vaccine outweighs the risk for an adverse reaction. For example, caution should be exercised in vaccinating children who received a prior dose of DTP or DTaP, experienced fever  $\geq 40.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $105^{\circ}\text{F}$ ); had persistent, inconsolable crying for  $\geq 3$  hours; or had a seizure  $\leq 3$  days after receiving the previous dose of DTP or DTaP. However, administering a pertussis-containing vaccine to children with a fever  $\geq 38.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $101^{\circ}\text{F}$ ) increased (e.g., during a pertussis outbreak) (25). The presence of a moderate or severe acute illness with or without a fever is a precaution. Other precautions are listed in this report (Table 5).

Physicians and other health-care providers might inappropriately consider certain conditions or circumstances to be true contraindications or precautions and thus miss opportunities to administer recommended vaccines (44). Likewise, physicians and other health-care providers might administer a vaccine when it should be withheld. This practice constitutes a true contraindication or precaution and might administer a vaccine when it should be withheld. This practice constitutes a true contraindication or precaution. Conditions often inappropriately regarded as contraindications to vaccination are listed in this report and include minor upper-respiratory tract illnesses (including otitis media) with or without fever, mild to moderate local reactions to vaccines, mild to moderate acute illness with or without fever, therapy, and the convalescent phase of an acute illness.

The decision to administer or delay vaccination because of a current or recent acute illness depends on the severity of symptoms. Vaccination can be administered to persons with minor acute illness (e.g., diarrhea or mild upper-respiratory tract infection with or without fever). However, acute illness in children with minor illnesses can seriously impede vaccination efforts (45--47). Among persons whose compliance with medical recommendations and opportunity to provide appropriate vaccinations is critical.

The majority of studies support the safety and efficacy of vaccinating persons who have mild illness (48--50). For example, children with mild illnesses produced measles antibody after vaccination (51). Only one limited study has reported a lower rate of seroconversion to pertussis vaccine among children with minor, afebrile upper-respiratory tract infections (52). Therefore, vaccination should not be delayed because of a mild upper-respiratory tract illness or other acute illness with or without fever.

Persons with moderate or severe acute illness should be vaccinated as soon as they have recovered from the acute phase of the illness. Delaying vaccination because of adverse effects of the vaccine on the underlying illness or mistakenly attributing a manifestation of the underlying illness to the vaccine is not recommended. Routine physical examinations and measuring temperatures are not prerequisites for vaccinating infants and children who appear healthy. If the child is ill and then postponing vaccination for those with moderate to severe illness, or proceeding with vaccination if the child is healthy, are not recommended. Procedures in childhood immunization programs.

A family history of seizures or other central nervous system disorders is not a contraindication to administration of pertussis vaccine. Pertussis vaccine should be administered to infants and children with a history of previous seizures until the child's neurologic status has been assessed is stable. Pertussis vaccine should be administered to infants with evolving neurologic conditions until a treatment regimen has been established and the condition is stable.

## Vaccine Administration

### Infection Control and Sterile Technique

Persons administering vaccines should follow necessary precautions to minimize risk for spreading disease. Hands should be washed with alcohol-based waterless antiseptic hand rub between each patient contact. Gloves are not required when administering vaccines. Persons who are likely to come into contact with potentially infectious body fluids or have open lesions on their hands. Syringes and needles should be disposable to minimize the risk of contamination. A separate needle and syringe should be used for each injection. Changing needles and syringes for each injection is unnecessary. Different vaccines should never be mixed in the same syringe unless specifically indicated. Disposable needles and syringes should be discarded in labeled, puncture-proof containers to prevent inadvertent needle-stick injuries. Sharps containers also can reduce the risk for injury and should be used whenever available (see Occupational Safety and Health Regulations).

### Recommended Routes of Injection and Needle Length

Routes of administration are recommended by the manufacturer for each immunobiologic. Deviation from the recommended route of administration may decrease efficacy (53,54) or increase local adverse reactions (55--57). Injectable immunobiologics should be administered where the risk of injury is limited. Vaccines containing adjuvants should be injected into the muscle mass; when administered subcutaneously, they may cause induration, skin discoloration, inflammation, and granuloma formation.

#### Subcutaneous Injections

Subcutaneous injections usually are administered at a 45-degree angle into the thigh of infants aged <12 months and in the upper arm of older children and adults. Subcutaneous injections can be administered into the upper-outer triceps area of an infant, if necessary. A 5/8-inch, 25-gauge needle is used for subcutaneous injections. Subcutaneous tissue is the target tissue.

### **Intramuscular Injections**

Intramuscular injections are administered at a 90-degree angle into the anterolateral aspect of the thigh or the deltoid muscle for administration of vaccines or toxoids because of the potential risk of injury to the sciatic nerve (58). In addition, injection of vaccines into the deltoid muscle decreased immunogenicity of hepatitis B and rabies vaccines in adults, presumably because of inadvertent subcutaneous injection. For all intramuscular injections, the needle should be long enough to reach the muscle mass and prevent vaccine from seeping into the subcutaneous space. Injections should not involve underlying nerves and blood vessels or bone (54,60-62). Vaccinators should be familiar with the anatomy of the area. An individual decision on needle size and site of injection must be made for each person on the basis of age, the volume of the injection, and the depth below the muscle surface into which the material is to be injected.

Although certain vaccination specialists advocate aspiration (i.e., the syringe plunger pulled back before injection), no data are available. If aspiration results in blood in the needle hub, the needle should be withdrawn and a new site should be selected.

**Infants (persons aged <12 months).** Among the majority of infants, the anterolateral aspect of the thigh provides the largest site for injection. For the majority of infants, a 7/8-1-inch, 22-25-gauge needle is sufficient to penetrate muscle in the infant. **Toddlers and Older Children (persons aged ≥12 months-18 years).** The deltoid muscle can be used if the muscle mass is at least 1 inch and from 7/8 to 1¼ inches, on the basis of the size of the muscle. For toddlers, the anterolateral thigh can be used, but the deltoid muscle is preferred. **Adults (persons aged >18 years).** For adults, the deltoid muscle is recommended for routine intramuscular vaccinations. The needle size is 1-1½ inches and 22-25 gauge.

### **Intradermal Injections**

Intradermal injections are usually administered on the volar surface of the forearm. With the bevel facing upwards, a 3/8-3/4-inch, 27-gauge needle is used. The needle should be inserted so that the entire bevel penetrates the epidermis at an angle parallel to the long axis of the forearm. The needle should be inserted so that the entire bevel penetrates the epidermis. Because of the small amounts of antigen used in intradermal vaccinations, care must be taken not to inject the vaccine into the subcutaneous space, which would result in a suboptimal immunologic response.

### **Multiple Vaccinations**

If ≥2 vaccine preparations are administered or if vaccine and an immune globulin preparation are administered simultaneously at different anatomic sites. If ≥2 injections must be administered in a single limb, the thigh is usually the preferred site because the sites can be sufficiently separated (i.e., ≥1 inch) so that any local reactions can be differentiated (55,63). For older children and adults, intramuscular injections, if necessary. The location of each injection should be documented in the person's medical record.

### **Jet Injection**

Jet injectors (JIs) are needle-free devices that drive liquid medication through a nozzle orifice, creating a narrow stream under pressure into intradermal, subcutaneous, or intramuscular tissues (64,65). Increasing attention to JI technology as an alternative to needles resulted from recent efforts to reduce the frequency of needle-stick injuries to health-care workers (66) and to overcome the limitations of needles and syringes in economically developing countries (67-69). JIs have been reported safe and effective in administering different vaccines, including bacterial diseases (69). The immune responses generated are usually equivalent to, and occasionally greater than, those induced by needles. Adverse reactions or injury (e.g., redness, induration, pain, blood, and ecchymosis at the injection site) can be more frequent for vaccines delivered by JIs (65,69).

Certain JIs were developed for situations in which substantial numbers of persons must be vaccinated rapidly, but personnel are limited. Such high-workload devices vaccinate consecutive patients from the same nozzle orifice, fluid is drawn from attached vials containing ≤50 doses each. Since the 1950s, these devices have been used extensively among military personnel in campaigns for disease control and eradication (64). An outbreak of hepatitis B among patients receiving injections from a multiple-use nozzle JI and subsequent laboratory, field, and animal studies demonstrated that such devices could become contaminated with blood. No U.S.-licensed, high-workload vaccination devices of unquestioned safety are available to vaccination programs. Efforts are underway to develop a new high-workload JI using disposable-cartridge technology that avoids reuse of any unsterilized components having contact with blood. Until such devices become licensed and available, the use of existing multiple-use-nozzle JIs should be limited. Use of multiple-use-nozzle JIs for bloodborne disease transmission is outweighed by the benefits of rapid vaccination with limited personnel in responding to a bioterrorism event), and by any competing risks of iatrogenic or occupational infections resulting from conventional needles. In the 1990s, a new generation of low-workload JIs were introduced with disposable cartridges serving as dose chambers and syringes. If used correctly, these devices avoid the safety concerns described previously for multiple-use-nozzle JIs with their labeling for intradermal, subcutaneous, or intramuscular administration.

### **Methods for Alleviating Discomfort and Pain Associated with Vaccination**

Comfort measures and distraction techniques (e.g., playing music or pretending to blow away the pain) might help children cope with vaccination. Pretreatment (30-60 minutes before injection) with 5% topical lidocaine-prilocaine emulsion (EMLA® cream) can decrease the pain of vaccination among infants by causing superficial anesthesia (74,75). Preliminary evidence indicates that

response to MMR (76). Topical lidocaine-prilocaine emulsion should not be used on infants aged <12 months who are receiving analgesics because of the possible development of methemoglobinemia (77). Acetaminophen has been used among children to reduce pain before vaccination (78). However, acetaminophen can cause formation of methemoglobin and, thus, might interact with lidocaine-prilocaine. Ibuprofen or other nonaspirin analgesic can be used, if necessary. Use of a topical refrigerant (vapocoolant) spray can reduce pain and can be as effective as lidocaine-prilocaine cream (79). Administering sweet-tasting fluid orally immediately before injection can be effective among certain infants.

### **Nonstandard Vaccination Practices**

Recommendations regarding route, site, and dosage of immunobiologics are derived from data from clinical trials, from practical considerations, and from safety considerations. ACIP strongly discourages variations from the recommended route, site, volume, or number of doses of any vaccine. Variation from the recommended route and site can result in inadequate protection. The immunogenicity of hepatitis B vaccine administered at the gluteal rather than the deltoid site is used for administration (53,59). Hepatitis B vaccine administered intradermally can result in a lower level of hepatitis B surface antibody than when administered by the deltoid intramuscular route (80,81). Doses of rabies vaccine administered by any route or site other than intramuscular should not be counted as valid and should be repeated, unless serologic testing indicates that an adequate response has been achieved. Live attenuated parenteral vaccines (e.g., MMR, varicella, or yellow fever) and certain inactivated vaccines (e.g., IPV, pneumococcal polysaccharide) are recommended by the manufacturers to be administered by subcutaneous injection. Pneumococcal polysaccharide and IPV are recommended for subcutaneous administration. Response to these vaccines probably will not be affected if the vaccines are administered by the intramuscular route. Repeating doses of vaccine administered by the intramuscular route rather than by the subcutaneous route is unnecessary. Administering volumes smaller than those recommended (e.g., split doses) can result in inadequate protection. Using larger volumes because of excessive local or systemic concentrations of antigens or other vaccine constituents. Using multiple reduced doses using smaller divided doses is not endorsed or recommended. Any vaccination using less than the standard dose should not be counted as valid, unless serologic testing indicates that an adequate response has been achieved.

### **Preventing Adverse Reactions**

Vaccines are intended to produce active immunity to specific antigens. An adverse reaction is an untoward effect that occurs during or shortly after a vaccine's primary purpose of producing immunity. Adverse reactions also are called *vaccine side effects*. All vaccines might cause adverse reactions (82). Vaccine adverse reactions are classified by three general categories: local, systemic, and severe. Local reactions are the least severe and most frequent. Systemic reactions (e.g., fever) occur less frequently than local reactions. Serious allergic reactions are the least frequent. Severe adverse reactions are rare.

The key to preventing the majority of serious adverse reactions is screening. Every person who administers vaccines should take appropriate precautions to the vaccine before it is administered (Table 5). Standardized screening questionnaires have been developed from various programs and other sources (e.g., the Immunization Action Coalition at <http://www.immunize.org> [accessed October 31, 2001]). Severe allergic reactions after vaccination are rare. However, all physicians and other health-care providers who administer vaccines should be familiar with emergency management of a person who experiences an anaphylactic reaction. All vaccine providers should be familiar with cardiopulmonary resuscitation.

Syncope (vasovagal or vasodepressor reaction) can occur after vaccination, most commonly among adolescents and young adults. Reports to the Vaccine Adverse Event Reporting system were coded as syncope. Forty percent of these episodes were reported to the VAERS system (unpublished data, 2001). Approximately 12% of reported syncopal episodes resulted in hospitalization because of injury or complications. Fractures and cerebral bleeding, have been reported to result from syncopal episodes after vaccination. A published review of syncopal episodes occurred  $\leq 5$  minutes after vaccination, and 89% occurred within 15 minutes after vaccination (83). Although allergic reactions are rare, certain vaccination specialists recommend that persons be observed for 15--20 minutes after being vaccinated. Patients should be observed until the symptoms resolve.

### **Managing Acute Vaccine Reactions**

Although rare after vaccination, the immediate onset and life-threatening nature of an anaphylactic reaction require that persons administering vaccines be capable of providing initial care for suspected anaphylaxis. Epinephrine and equipment for maintaining an airway should be available. Anaphylaxis usually begins within minutes of vaccine administration. Rapidly recognizing and initiating treatment are required to prevent cardiovascular collapse. If flushing, facial edema, urticaria, itching, swelling of the mouth or throat, wheezing, difficulty breathing, or hypotension occurs, the patient should be placed in a recumbent position with the legs elevated. Aqueous epinephrine (1:1000) should be administered intramuscularly (84). A dose of diphenhydramine hydrochloride might shorten the reaction, but it will have little immediate effect. Maintenance of the airway may be necessary. Arrangements should be made for immediate transfer to an emergency facility for further evaluation and treatment.

### **Occupational Safety Regulations**

Bloodborne diseases (e.g., hepatitis B and C and human immunodeficiency virus [HIV]) are occupational hazards for health-care workers. The incidence of needle-stick injuries among health-care workers and the consequent risk for bloodborne diseases acquired from such injuries led to the passage of the Needlestick Safety and Prevention Act, which was signed into law. The act directed the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) to strengthen its existing standards. The standards were revised and became effective in April 2001 (66). These federal regulations require that safer injection devices (e.g., safety syringes and injectors) be used for parenteral vaccination in all clinical settings when such devices are appropriate, commercially available,

purpose. The rules also require that records be kept documenting the incidence of injuries caused by medical sharps (except if nonmanagerial employees be involved in the evaluation and selection of safer devices to be procured. Needle-shielding or needle-free devices that might satisfy the occupational safety regulations for administering parenteral injections are listed at multiple websites (69,85--87).<sup>9</sup> Additional information regarding implementation and enforcement of these regulations is available at <http://www.osha-slc.gov/needlesticks> (accessed October 31, 2001).

## Storage and Handling of Immunobiologics

Failure to adhere to recommended specifications for storage and handling of immunobiologics can reduce potency, resulting in a less effective recipient. Recommendations included in a product's package insert, including reconstitution of the vaccine, should be followed. It is the responsibility of all parties from the time the vaccine is manufactured until administration. All vaccines should be inspected to ensure that the cold chain has been maintained. Vaccines should continue to be stored at recommended temperatures immediately after receipt. Vaccines for measles, mumps, rubella, varicella, and yellow fever) are sensitive to increased temperature. All other vaccines are sensitive to freezing. Mishandled vaccines can be ineffective. When in doubt regarding the appropriate handling of a vaccine, vaccination providers should contact the manufacturer. Inactivated vaccines and toxoids that have been exposed to freezing temperatures) or that are beyond their expiration date should not be administered. If expired vaccines are administered inadvertently, they should not be counted as valid doses and should be repeated, unless specified otherwise. Live attenuated virus vaccines should be administered promptly after reconstitution. Varicella vaccine must be administered within 1 hour after reconstitution. MMR vaccine must be administered within 8 hours after reconstitution. If not administered within the specified time after reconstitution, the vaccine must be discarded.

The majority of vaccines have a similar appearance after being drawn into a syringe. Instances in which the wrong vaccine is administered in the practice of prefilling syringes or drawing doses of a vaccine into multiple syringes before their immediate need. ACIP discourages the practice of prefilling syringes because of the potential for such administration errors. To prevent errors, vaccine doses should not be drawn into a syringe until immediately before use. In certain circumstances where a single vaccine type is being used (e.g., in advance of a community influenza vaccination campaign), prefilling syringes for immediate use can be considered. Care should be taken to ensure that the cold chain is maintained until the vaccine is administered. Each syringe, vaccine, lot number, and date of filling must be carefully labeled on each syringe, and the doses should be administered as specified. Certain vaccines are distributed in multidose vials. When opened, the remaining doses from partially used multidose vials can be used until the expiration date on the vial or vaccine packaging, provided that the vial has been stored correctly and that the vaccine is not visibly contaminated.

## Special Situations

### Concurrently Administering Antimicrobial Agents and Vaccines

With limited exceptions, using an antibiotic is not a contraindication to vaccination. Antimicrobial agents have no effect on the response to live oral Ty21a typhoid vaccine, and have no effect on inactivated, recombinant subunit, or polysaccharide vaccines or toxoids administered to persons receiving antimicrobial agents until  $\geq 24$  hours after any antibiotic dose (18).

Antiviral drugs used for treatment or prophylaxis of influenza virus infections have no effect on the response to inactivated influenza vaccines. Administration of antiviral drugs against herpesviruses (e.g., acyclovir or valacyclovir) might reduce the efficacy of live attenuated varicella vaccine. These drugs should not be administered with varicella vaccine, if possible.

The antimalarial drug mefloquine (Lariam<sup>®</sup> [manufactured by Roche Laboratories, Inc.]) could affect the immune response to live attenuated typhoid vaccine if administered simultaneously (89,90). To minimize this effect, administering Ty21a typhoid vaccine  $\geq 24$  hours before or after a dose of mefloquine is recommended.

### Tuberculosis Screening and Skin Test Reactivity

Measles illness, severe acute or chronic infections, HIV infection, and malnutrition can create an anergic state during which a tuberculin skin test (e.g., *protein derivative* [PPD] skin test) might give a false negative reaction (91--93). Although any live attenuated measles vaccine can suppress tuberculin reactivity, the degree of suppression is probably less than that occurring from acute infection from wild measles virus. Although routine PPD screening is recommended, PPD screening is sometimes needed at the same time as administering a measles-containing vaccine (e.g., for health reasons), and the following options should be considered:

- PPD and measles-containing vaccine can be administered at the same visit (preferred option). Simultaneously administering the two does not interfere with reading the PPD result at 48--72 hours and ensures that the person has received measles vaccine.
- If the measles-containing vaccine has been administered recently, PPD screening should be delayed  $\geq 4$  weeks after vaccination to remove the concern of any theoretical but transient suppression of PPD reactivity from the vaccine.
- PPD screening can be performed and read before administering the measles-containing vaccine. This option is the least preferred because of the potential for measles-containing vaccine suppression of PPD reactivity.

No data exist for the potential degree of PPD suppression that might be associated with other parenteral live attenuated virus vaccines. Nevertheless, in the absence of data, following guidelines for measles-containing vaccine when scheduling PPD screening are prudent. If a risk exists that the opportunity to vaccinate might be missed, vaccination should not be delayed. Mucosally administered live attenuated virus vaccines (e.g., OPV and intranasally administered influenza vaccine) are unlike parenteral vaccines. It has been reported that inactivated vaccines, polysaccharide vaccines, recombinant, or subunit vaccines, or toxoids interfere with PPD reactivity in the absence of tuberculosis disease is not a contraindication to administration of any vaccine, including parenteral vaccines. Tuberculosis disease is not a contraindication to vaccination, unless the person is moderately or severely ill. Although no stu



persons with untreated tuberculosis, a theoretical basis exists for concern that measles vaccine might exacerbate tuberculosis. For persons with untreated active tuberculosis, initiating antituberculosis therapy is advisable (6). Ruling out concurrent immunodeficiency (e.g., HIV infection) before administering live attenuated vaccines is also prudent.

### **Severe Allergy to Vaccine Components**

Vaccine components can cause allergic reactions among certain recipients. These reactions can be local or systemic and can include anaphylactic-like responses (e.g., generalized urticaria or hives, wheezing, swelling of the mouth and throat, difficulty breathing). Reactions might be caused by the vaccine antigen, residual animal protein, antimicrobial agents, preservatives, stabilizers, or other vaccine components, their use, and the vaccines that contain each component has been published (95) and is also available from the website at <http://www.cdc.gov/nip> (accessed October 31, 2001).

The most common animal protein allergen is egg protein, which is found in vaccines prepared by using embryonated chicken eggs. Ordinarily, persons who are able to eat eggs or egg products safely can receive these vaccines; persons with histories of anaphylactic reactions to egg proteins should not be administered these vaccines. Asking persons if they can eat eggs without adverse effects is a reasonable approach to ruling out allergic reactions from receiving yellow fever and influenza vaccines. A regimen for administering influenza vaccine to children has been developed (96).

Measles and mumps vaccine viruses are grown in chick embryo fibroblast tissue culture. Persons with a serious egg allergy should avoid these vaccines without skin testing or desensitization to egg protein (6). Rubella and varicella vaccines are grown in human diploid cells. Persons with histories of severe allergy to eggs or egg proteins. The rare serious allergic reaction after measles or mumps vaccine is due to egg antigens, but to other components of the vaccine (e.g., gelatin) (97--100). MMR, its component vaccines, and other vaccines containing gelatin should be avoided by persons with histories of severe allergic reactions to gelatin-containing products. Before administering gelatin-containing vaccines to such persons, skin testing for sensitivity to gelatin and desensitization procedures for this approach have been published.

Certain vaccines contain trace amounts of antibiotics or other preservatives (e.g., neomycin or thimerosal) to which patients may be allergic. Information provided in the vaccine package insert should be reviewed carefully before deciding if the rare patient with such allergies should receive a vaccine that contains penicillin or penicillin derivatives.

Certain vaccines contain trace amounts of neomycin. Persons who have experienced anaphylactic reactions to neomycin should avoid these vaccines. Neomycin allergy is a contact dermatitis, a manifestation of a delayed type (cell-mediated) immune response, rather than anaphylactic reactions to neomycin is not a contraindication for administration of these vaccines.

Thimerosal is an organic mercurial compound in use since the 1930s and added to certain immunobiologic products as a preservative. The U.S. Public Health Service and the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) in 1999 (103) and agreed to by the American Academy of Pediatrics established the goal of removing thimerosal as soon as possible from vaccines routinely recommended for infants. Although the levels of thimerosal in vaccines and the risk was only theoretical (104), this goal was established as a precautionary measure. The public is concerned about the health effects of mercury exposure of any type, and the elimination of mercury from vaccines routinely recommended for children have been manufactured without thimerosal as a preservative and contain either gelatin or egg protein as a preservative is present in certain other vaccines (e.g., Td, DT, one of two adult hepatitis B vaccines, and influenza vaccine). Influenza vaccine of influenza vaccine was licensed by FDA in September 2001.

Receiving thimerosal-containing vaccines has been believed to lead to induction of allergy. However, limited scientific basis for this concern. Thimerosal usually consists of local delayed type hypersensitivity reactions (105--107). Thimerosal elicits positive delayed type hypersensitivity reactions in persons tested, but these tests have limited or no clinical relevance (108,109). The majority of patients do not experience reactions to thimerosal-containing vaccines even when patch or intradermal tests for thimerosal indicate hypersensitivity (109). A localized or delayed type hypersensitivity reaction is not a contraindication to receipt of a vaccine that contains thimerosal.

### **Latex Allergy**

Latex is liquid sap from the commercial rubber tree. Latex contains naturally occurring impurities (e.g., plant proteins and polysaccharides) that can cause allergic reactions. Latex is processed to form natural rubber latex and dry natural rubber. Dry natural rubber and natural rubber latex are used as latex but in lesser amounts. Natural rubber latex is used to produce medical gloves, catheters, and other products. Dry natural rubber is used for stoppers, and injection ports on intravascular tubing. Synthetic rubber and synthetic latex also are used in medical gloves, syringes, and synthetic latex do not contain natural rubber or natural latex, and therefore, do not contain the impurities linked to allergic reactions. The most common type of latex sensitivity is contact-type (type 4) allergy, usually as a result of prolonged contact with latex. Latex allergies among patients with diabetes have been described (111--113). Allergic reactions (including anaphylactic) are rare. Only one report of an allergic reaction after administering hepatitis B vaccine in a patient with known severe allergy (anaphylactic) to latex. If a person reports a severe (anaphylactic) allergy to latex, vaccines supplied in vials or syringes that contain natural rubber should not be administered. Vaccination outweighs the risk of an allergic reaction to the vaccine. For latex allergies other than anaphylactic allergies (e.g., contact-type), vaccines supplied in vials or syringes that contain dry natural rubber or natural rubber latex can be administered.

### **Vaccination of Premature Infants**

In the majority of cases, infants born prematurely, regardless of birth weight, should be vaccinated at the same chronological

precautions as full-term infants and children. Birth weight and size are not factors in deciding whether to postpone routine vaccines (115--117), except for hepatitis B vaccine. The full recommended dose of each vaccine should be used. Divided or reduced doses are not recommended. Studies demonstrate that decreased seroconversion rates might occur among certain premature infants with low birth weights who receive hepatitis B vaccine at birth (119). However, by chronological age 1 month, all premature infants, regardless of initial birth weight, respond adequately as older and larger infants (120--122). A premature infant born to HBsAg-positive mothers and mothers with unknown serostatus should receive immunoprophylaxis with hepatitis B vaccine and hepatitis B immunoglobulin (HBIG)  $\leq$  12 hours after birth. If these infants receive a reduced dose, that dose should not be counted towards completion of the hepatitis B vaccine series, and three additional doses of hepatitis B vaccine should be given. The first dose of hepatitis B vaccine for a premature infant is age 1 month. The optimal timing of the first dose of hepatitis B vaccine for premature infants of HBsAg-negative mothers has not been determined. However, these infants can receive the first dose of the hepatitis B vaccine series at chronological age 1 month in the hospital before chronological age 1 month can also be administered hepatitis B vaccine at discharge, if they are medically stable.

### **Breast-Feeding and Vaccination**

Neither inactivated nor live vaccines administered to a lactating woman affect the safety of breast-feeding for mothers or infants. Breast-feeding during immunization and is not a contraindication for any vaccine. Limited data indicate that breast-feeding can enhance the response to vaccines. Infants should be vaccinated according to routine recommended schedules (124--126).

Although live vaccines multiply within the mother's body, the majority have not been demonstrated to be excreted in human milk. Although excreted in human milk, the virus usually does not infect the infant. If infection does occur, it is well-tolerated because the virus is well-tolerated. Live recombinant, subunit, polysaccharide, conjugate vaccines and toxoids pose no risk for mothers who are breast-feeding or for infants.

### **Vaccination During Pregnancy**

Risk to a developing fetus from vaccination of the mother during pregnancy is primarily theoretical. No evidence exists of risk from inactivated virus or bacterial vaccines or toxoids (128,129). Benefits of vaccinating pregnant women usually outweigh potential risks, when infection would pose a risk to the mother or fetus, and when the vaccine is unlikely to cause harm.

Td toxoid is indicated routinely for pregnant women. Previously vaccinated pregnant women who have not received a Td booster dose. Pregnant women who are not immunized or only partially immunized against tetanus should complete the primary series. Women who seek prenatal care and the required interval between doses, one or two doses of Td can be administered before delivery. Women who have not completed the recommended three-dose series during pregnancy, should receive follow-up after delivery to ensure that they are fully immunized. Women in the second and third trimesters of pregnancy have been demonstrated to be at increased risk for hospitalization from influenza. Influenza vaccination is recommended for healthy women who will be beyond the first trimester of pregnancy (i.e.,  $\geq$  14 weeks of gestation) (88). Women who have medical conditions that increase their risk for complications of influenza during the influenza season, regardless of the stage of pregnancy.

IPV can be administered to pregnant women who are at risk for exposure to wild-type poliovirus infection (4). Hepatitis B vaccine can be administered to pregnant women at risk for hepatitis B virus infection (132). Hepatitis A, pneumococcal polysaccharide, and meningococcal polysaccharide vaccines can be administered to pregnant women at increased risk for those infections (43,133,134).

Pregnant women who must travel to areas where the risk for yellow fever is high should receive yellow fever vaccine, because the benefits substantially outweighed by the risk for yellow fever infection (22,135). Pregnancy is a contraindication for measles, mumps, and rubella (MMR) vaccine. Theoretical concern, no cases of congenital rubella or varicella syndrome or abnormalities attributable to fetal infection have been reported. Pregnant women who received rubella or varicella vaccines during pregnancy (6,136). Because of the importance of protecting women and their infants, practices in any immunization program include asking women if they are pregnant or intend to become pregnant in the next 4 weeks. If they are pregnant, explaining the potential risk for the fetus to women who state that they are not pregnant, and counseling women about the risks of vaccination during the 4 weeks after MMR vaccination (6,35,137). Routine pregnancy testing of women of childbearing age before administration of MMR vaccine is recommended (6). If a pregnant woman is inadvertently vaccinated or if she becomes pregnant within 4 weeks after MMR or varicella vaccine, the theoretical basis of concern for the fetus; however, MMR or varicella vaccination during pregnancy should not ordinarily be considered a contraindication. Persons who receive MMR vaccine do not transmit the vaccine viruses to contacts (6). Transmission of varicella vaccine virus to contacts should be avoided. Live vaccines should be administered when indicated to the children and other household contacts of pregnant women (6,8).

All pregnant women should be evaluated for immunity to rubella and be tested for the presence of HBsAg (6,35,132). Women who are not immune should be vaccinated immediately after delivery. A woman known to be HBsAg-positive should be followed carefully to ensure that the infant receives immunoprophylaxis  $\leq$  12 hours after birth and that the infant completes the recommended hepatitis B vaccine series (132). No known risk exists for transmission of hepatitis B virus to the fetus from pregnant women with immune globulin preparations.

### **Vaccination of Internationally Adopted Children**

The ability of a clinician to determine that a person is protected on the basis of their country of origin and their records alone is limited. Internationally adopted children should receive vaccines according to recommended schedules for children in the United States. Only written documentation of immunization is available. Written records are more likely to predict protection if the vaccines, dates of administration, intervals between doses, and the number of doses are comparable to the current U.S. recommendations. Although vaccines with inadequate potency have been used worldwide, most vaccines used worldwide are produced with adequate quality control standards and are potent.

The number of American families adopting children from outside the United States has increased substantially in recent years. Many countries have immunization schedules that differ from the recommended childhood immunization schedule in the United States. Diff

those used in other countries include the vaccines administered, the recommended ages of administration, and the number of doses. Data are inconclusive regarding the extent to which an internationally adopted child's immunization record reflects the child's actual administration of MMR vaccine when only single-antigen measles vaccine was administered. A study of children adopted from Eastern Europe determined that only 39% (range: 17%--88% by country) of children with documentation of >3 doses of DTP had protective antibody to diphtheria and tetanus antitoxin (142). However, antibody testing was performed by using a hemagglutination assay, which cannot directly be compared with antibody concentration (143). Another study measured antibody to diphtheria and tetanus toxins in children who received  $\geq 2$  doses of DTP. The majority of the children were from Russia, Eastern Europe, and Asian countries, and 78% had protective antibody concentrations. Overall, 94% had evidence of protection against diphtheria (EIA > 0.1 IU/mL). A total of 84% had protection against tetanus (EIA > 0.5 IU/mL). Among children without protective tetanus antitoxin concentration, all except one had records of  $\geq 3$  doses of DTP. Indeterminate concentrations were categorized as indeterminate (ELISA = 0.05--0.49 IU/mL) (144). Reasons for the discrepant findings in laboratory methodologies; the study using a hemagglutination assay might have underestimated the number of children who had protective antibody concentrations. Standardized methodologies are needed. Data are likely to remain limited for countries other than the People's Republic of China because of a limited number of adoptees from other countries.

Physicians and other health-care providers can follow one of multiple approaches if a question exists regarding whether a child's immunization record is immunogenic. Repeating the vaccinations is an acceptable option. Doing so is usually safe and avoids the need to obtain unnecessary injections if desired, judicious use of serologic testing might be helpful in determining which immunizations are needed. Possible approaches to evaluation and revaccination for each vaccine recommended universally for children in the United States are discussed below.

#### **MMR Vaccine**

The simplest approach to resolving concerns regarding MMR immunization among internationally adopted children is to revaccinate according to the child's age. Serious adverse events after MMR vaccinations are rare (6). No evidence indicates that additional MMR vaccinations are necessary for children who are already immune to measles, mumps, or rubella as a result of previous vaccination or receipt of a vaccine administered before the first birthday should not be counted as part of the series (6). Alternatively, serologic testing for measles, mumps, and rubella viruses indicated on the vaccination record can be considered. Serologic testing is widely available for measles and rubella IgG antibody. Receipt of monovalent measles or measles-rubella vaccine at age  $\geq 1$  year and who has protective antibody against measles and rubella is age-appropriate to ensure protection against mumps (and rubella if measles vaccine alone had been used). If a child whose record indicates receipt of a vaccine has a protective concentration of antibody to measles, no additional vaccination is needed unless required for school entry.

#### **Hib Vaccine**

Serologic correlates of protection for children vaccinated >2 months previously might be difficult to interpret. Because the concentration of antibody decreases with age and adverse events are rare (24), age-appropriate vaccination should be provided. Hib vaccination is not recommended for children <2 years of age.

#### **Hepatitis B Vaccine**

Serologic testing for HBsAg is recommended for international adoptees, and children determined to be HBsAg-positive should be vaccinated. Household members of HBsAg-positive children should be vaccinated. A child whose records indicate receipt of  $\geq 3$  doses of HBV vaccine and additional doses are not needed if  $\geq 1$  doses were administered at age  $\geq 6$  months. Children who received their last hepatitis B vaccine at age <6 months receive an additional dose at age  $\geq 6$  months. Those who have received <3 doses should complete the series at the recommended age.

#### **Poliovirus Vaccine**

The simplest approach is to revaccinate internationally adopted children with IPV according to the U.S. schedule. Adverse events are rare. Children who were appropriately vaccinated with three doses of OPV in economically developing countries might have suboptimal seroconversion. Serologic testing for neutralizing antibody to poliovirus types 1, 2, and 3 can be obtained commercially and at certain state health departments. Children with protective titers against all three types do not need revaccination and should complete the schedule as age-appropriate. Alternatively, a single dose of IPV is excellent among children who previously received OPV (3), a single dose of IPV can be administered initially.

#### **DTaP Vaccine**

Vaccination providers can revaccinate a child with DTaP vaccine without regard to recorded doses; however, one concern is the increased rates of local adverse reactions after the fourth and fifth doses of DTP or DTaP (42). If a revaccination approach is used, serologic testing for specific IgG antibody to tetanus and diphtheria toxins can be measured before administering additional doses. If protective antibody concentrations are present, further doses are unnecessary and subsequent vaccination should occur as age-appropriate. No established serologic correlates of protection exist. For a child whose record indicates receipt of  $\geq 3$  doses of DTP or DTaP, serologic testing for specific IgG antibody to both diphtheria and tetanus toxins is a reasonable approach. If a protective concentration is present, recorded doses can be considered valid, and the vaccination record can be updated. Indeterminate antibody concentration might indicate immunologic memory but antibody waning; serology can be repeated as needed to avoid revaccination with a complete series.

Alternately, for a child whose records indicate receipt of  $\geq 3$  doses, a single booster dose can be administered, followed by serologic testing for antibody to both diphtheria and tetanus toxins. If a protective concentration is obtained, the recorded doses can be considered valid. Children with indeterminate antibody concentration after a booster dose should be revaccinated with a complete series.

#### **Varicella Vaccine**

Varicella vaccine is not administered in the majority of countries. A child who lacks a reliable medical history regarding prior

appropriate (8).

### **Pneumococcal Vaccines**

Pneumococcal conjugate and pneumococcal polysaccharide vaccines are not administered in the majority of countries and should be indicated by the presence of underlying medical conditions (26,43).

### **Altered Immunocompetence**

ACIP's statement regarding vaccinating immunocompromised persons summarizes recommendations regarding the efficacy, safety, and immunogenicity of immunoglobulin preparations for immunocompromised persons (145). ACIP statements regarding individual vaccines or immune globulins address those concerns.

Severe immunosuppression can be the result of congenital immunodeficiency, HIV infection, leukemia, lymphoma, general anesthesia, antineoplastic agents, radiation, or a high dose, prolonged course of corticosteroids. The degree to which a person is immunocompromised varies. Severe complications have followed vaccination with live-virus vaccines and live bacterial vaccines among immunocompromised persons. Persons should not receive live vaccines except in certain circumstances that are noted in the following paragraphs. MMR vaccine viruses are not attenuated. Varicella vaccine virus is rare (6,138). MMR and varicella vaccines should be administered to susceptible household and other contacts when indicated.

Persons with HIV infection are at increased risk for severe complications if infected with measles. No severe or unusual adverse effects have been reported among HIV-infected persons who did not have evidence of severe immunosuppression (154--157). As a result, MMR should be administered to HIV-infected persons who do not have evidence of severe immunosuppression<sup>††</sup> and for whom measles vaccination would otherwise be contraindicated. Children with HIV infection are at increased risk for complications of primary varicella and for herpes zoster, compared with children without HIV infection. Data among asymptomatic or mildly symptomatic HIV-infected children (CDC class N1 or A1, age-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> lymphocyte count  $\geq 25\%$ ) show that varicella vaccine is immunogenic, effective, and safe (138,159). Varicella vaccine should be considered for asymptomatic or mildly symptomatic HIV-infected children with age-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocyte percentages of  $\geq 25\%$ . Eligible children should receive two doses of varicella vaccine (138).

HIV-infected persons who are receiving regular doses of IGIV might not respond to varicella vaccine or MMR or its individual components because of the presence of passively acquired antibody. However, because of the potential benefit, measles vaccination should be considered for persons receiving a scheduled dose of IGIV (if not otherwise contraindicated), although an optimal immune response is unlikely to occur. Unless a sufficient amount of antibodies have been produced, vaccination should be repeated (if not otherwise contraindicated) after the recommended interval. Persons receiving IGIV should be considered for persons on maintenance IGIV therapy who are exposed to measles  $\geq 3$  weeks after administering a standard dose of IGIV. Persons with cellular immunodeficiency should not receive varicella vaccine. However, ACIP recommends that persons with hypogammaglobulinemia or dysgammaglobulinemia should be vaccinated (138,160).

Inactivated, recombinant, subunit, polysaccharide, and conjugate vaccines and toxoids can be administered to all immunocompromised persons. Live vaccines might be suboptimal. If indicated, all inactivated vaccines are recommended for immunocompromised persons in usual circumstances. Pneumococcal, meningococcal, and Hib vaccines are recommended specifically for certain groups of immunocompromised persons, including those with anatomic asplenia (145,161).

Except for influenza vaccine, which should be administered annually (88), vaccination during chemotherapy or radiation therapy is suboptimal. Patients vaccinated while receiving immunosuppressive therapy or in the 2 weeks before starting therapy should be revaccinated  $\geq 3$  months after therapy is discontinued. Patients with leukemia in remission whose chemotherapy has been terminated should receive live vaccines.

### **Corticosteroids**

The exact amount of systemically absorbed corticosteroids and the duration of administration needed to suppress the immune response in immunocompromised persons are not well-defined. The majority of experts agree that corticosteroid therapy usually is not a contraindication to administration (i.e.,  $< 2$  weeks); a low to moderate dose; long-term, alternate-day treatment with short-acting preparations; maintenance therapy; or administration topically (skin or eyes) or by intra-articular, bursal, or tendon injection (145). Although of theoretical concern, live vaccines have been reported among persons receiving corticosteroid therapy by aerosol, and such therapy is not a reason to withhold vaccination. The effects of steroid treatment vary, but the majority of clinicians consider a dose equivalent to either  $\geq 2$  mg/kg of body weight or  $\geq 2$  mg/kg of body weight equivalent for children who weigh  $> 10$  kg, when administered for  $\geq 2$  weeks as sufficiently immunosuppressive to raise concerns about the efficacy of live virus vaccines (84,145). Corticosteroids used in greater than physiologic doses also can reduce the immune response to vaccines. Live vaccines should be administered after discontinuation of therapy before administering a live-virus vaccine to patients who have received high systemically absorbed doses of corticosteroids.

### **Vaccination of Hematopoietic Stem Cell Transplant Recipients**

Hematopoietic stem cell transplant (HSCT) is the infusion of hematopoietic stem cells from a donor into a patient who has received chemotherapy, which are usually bone marrow ablative. HSCT is used to treat a variety of neoplastic diseases, hematologic disorders, immunodeficiencies, and autoimmune disorders. HSCT recipients can receive either their own cells (i.e., autologous HSCT) or cells from a donor (i.e., allogeneic HSCT). The source of the transplanted stem cells can be from either a donor's bone marrow or peripheral blood stem cells from a newborn infant (162).

Antibody titers to vaccine-preventable diseases (e.g., tetanus, poliovirus, measles, mumps, rubella, and encapsulated bacteria) are low in autologous HSCT if the recipient is not revaccinated (163--167). HSCT recipients are at increased risk for certain vaccine-preventable diseases.

encapsulated bacteria (i.e., pneumococcal and Hib infections). As a result, HSCT recipients should be routinely revaccinated after transplanted stem cells. Revaccination with inactivated, recombinant, subunit, polysaccharide, and Hib vaccines should begin 6 months after HSCT. This recommendation is for influenza vaccine, which should be administered at  $\geq 6$  months after HSCT and annually for the life of the recipient. Hib vaccine should be administered 24 months after transplantation if the HSCT recipient is presumed to be immunocompetent. Varicella and zoster vaccines are not recommended for HSCT recipients because of insufficient experience using these vaccines among HSCT recipients. Contacts of HSCT recipients and health-care workers who care for HSCT recipients, should be appropriately vaccinated, including household contacts. Additional details of vaccination of HSCT recipients and their contacts can be found in a specific CDC report on this topic ([167](#)).

### **Vaccinating Persons with Bleeding Disorders and Persons Receiving Anticoagulant Therapy**

Persons with bleeding disorders (e.g., hemophilia) and persons receiving anticoagulant therapy have an increased risk for acquiring other vaccine-preventable diseases. However, because of the risk for hematoma formation avoided among persons with bleeding disorders by using the subcutaneous or intradermal routes for vaccines that are administered intramuscularly, intramuscular administration of Hepatitis B vaccine administered intramuscularly to 153 persons with hemophilia by using a 23-gauge needle, followed by simple pressure, resulted in a 4% bruising rate with no patients requiring factor supplementation (*168*). Whether antigens that produce more local reactions have an equally low rate of bruising is unknown.

When hepatitis B or any other intramuscular vaccine is indicated for a patient with a bleeding disorder or a person receiving anticoagulant therapy, the vaccine can be administered intramuscularly if, in the opinion of a physician familiar with the patient's bleeding risk, the vaccine can be administered if the patient receives antihemophilia or similar therapy, intramuscular vaccinations can be scheduled shortly after such therapy. Simple pressure should be used for the vaccination and firm pressure applied to the site, without rubbing, for  $\geq 2$  minutes. The patient or family should be instructed to avoid a hematoma from the injection.

## **Vaccination Records**

### **Consent to Vaccinate**

The National Childhood Vaccine Injury Act of 1986 (42 U.S.C. § 300aa-26) requires that all health-care providers in the United States must provide a copy of the relevant, current edition of the vaccine information materials that have been produced by the manufacturer of the vaccine. The vaccine information material must be provided to the parent or legal representative of any child or to any adult who is the recipient if the provider intends to administer the vaccine. The Act does not require that a signature be obtained, but documentation of consent is required by state and local authorities.

### **Provider Records**

Documentation of patient vaccinations helps ensure that persons in need of a vaccine receive it and that adequately vaccinated persons are not increasing the risk for local adverse events (e.g., tetanus toxoid). Serologic test results for vaccine-preventable diseases (e.g., measles, mumps, rubella) and documented episodes of adverse events also should be recorded in the permanent medical record of the vaccine recipient.

Health-care providers who administer vaccines covered by the National Childhood Vaccine Injury Act are required to ensure that the permanent medical record of the recipient (or a permanent office log or file) indicates the date the vaccine was administered, the vaccine manufacturer, the name of the person administering the vaccine. Additionally, the provider is required to record the edition date of the vaccine information materials were provided. Regarding this Act, the term *health-care provider* is defined as any licensed health-care professional, whether employed by a public (including federal, state, and local departments and agencies), under whose authority a specified vaccine is administered. Records for all vaccines, not just for those required by the National Childhood Vaccine Injury Act.

### **Patients' Personal Records**

Official immunization cards have been adopted by every state, territory, and the District of Columbia to encourage uniformity in immunization status by schools and child care centers. The records also are key tools in immunization education programs aimed at increasing awareness of the need for vaccines. A permanent immunization record card should be established for each newborn infant and maintained throughout the child's life. These cards are distributed to new mothers before discharge from the hospital. Using immunization record cards for adolescents and adults is also encouraged.

### **Registries**

Immunization registries are confidential, population-based, computerized information systems that collect vaccination data for a defined geographic area. Registries are a critical tool that can increase and sustain increased vaccination coverage by consolidating vaccination data from multiple providers, generating reminder and recall vaccination notices for each child, and providing official vaccination forms and vaccine information materials. An operational immunization registry also can prevent duplicate vaccinations, limit missed appointments, reduce vaccine waste, locate immunization records or certificates. The National Vaccine Advisory Committee strongly encourages development of immunization registries and recommends that vaccination providers participate in these registries whenever possible (*170,171*). A 95% participation rate in operational population-based immunization registries is a national health objective for 2010 (*172*).

## **Reporting Adverse Events After Vaccination**

Modern vaccines are safe and effective; however, adverse events have been reported after administration of all vaccines (*82*). Most reactions to vaccines are extremely rare, severe, systemic illness (e.g., encephalopathy). Establishing evidence for cause-and-effect relationships alone is impossible because temporal association alone does not necessarily indicate causation. Unless the syndrome that occurs is pathologically distinctive, more detailed epidemiologic studies to compare the incidence of the event among vaccinees with that of the general population are needed.

often necessary. Reporting adverse events to public health authorities, including serious events, is a key stimulus to developing an association with vaccination. More complete information regarding adverse reactions to a specific vaccine can be found in the specific statement on vaccine adverse reactions (82).

The National Childhood Vaccine Injury Act requires health-care providers to report selected events occurring after vaccination to the Vaccine Adverse Reporting System (VAERS). Events for which reporting is required appear in the Vaccine Injury Table.<sup>99</sup> Persons other than health-care providers may also report to VAERS. Adverse events other than those that must be reported or that occur after administration of vaccines not covered by the table, but which are unusual, also should be reported to VAERS, even if the physician or other health-care provider is uncertain they are related to a vaccine. Information is available in the FDA Drug Bulletin, by calling the 24-hour VAERS Hotline at 800-822-7967, or from the VAERS website at <http://www.vaers.fda.gov> (accessed November 7, 2001).

### **Vaccine Injury Compensation Program**

The National Vaccine Injury Compensation Program, established by the National Childhood Vaccine Injury Act, is a no-fault program. Persons who have suffered an injury or death as a result of administration of a covered vaccine can seek compensation. The program, which began in 1988, is an alternative to civil litigation under the traditional tort system in that negligence need not be proven. Claims arising from injuries covered by the program before civil litigation can be pursued.

The program relies on a Vaccine Injury Table listing the vaccines covered by the program as well as the injuries, disabilities, and deaths which compensation might be awarded. The table defines the time during which the first symptom or substantial aggravation of the condition occurred. Successful claimants receive a legal presumption of causation if a condition listed in the table is proven, thus avoiding the need to prove causation. Claimants also can prevail for conditions not listed in the table if they prove causation. Injuries after administration of vaccines not covered by the program are not eligible for compensation through the program. Additional information is available from the following:

National Vaccine Injury Compensation Program  
Health Resources and Services Administration  
Parklawn Building, Room 8-46  
5600 Fishers Lane  
Rockville, MD 20857  
Telephone: 800-338-2382 (24-hour recording)  
Internet: [http:// www.hrsa.gov/bhpr/vicp](http://www.hrsa.gov/bhpr/vicp) (accessed November 7, 2001)

Persons wishing to file a claim for vaccine injury should call or write the following:

U.S. Court of Federal Claims  
717 Madison Place, N.W.  
Washington, D.C. 20005  
Telephone: 202-219-9657

### **Benefit and Risk Communication**

Parents, guardians, legal representatives, and adolescent and adult patients should be informed regarding the benefits and risks of vaccination. Opportunity for questions should be provided before each vaccination. Discussion of the benefits and risks of vaccination is essential. The National Childhood Vaccine Injury Act requires that vaccine information materials be developed for each vaccine covered by the program. *Vaccine Information Statements*, must be provided by all public and private vaccination providers each time a vaccine is administered. These statements are available from state health authorities responsible for immunization, or they can be obtained from CDC's National Immunization Information System (accessed November 7, 2001). Translations of Vaccine Information Statements into languages other than English are available from the Immunization Action Coalition website at <http://www.immunize.org> (accessed November 7, 2001).

Health-care providers should anticipate that certain parents or patients will question the need for or safety of vaccination, or refuse vaccinations. A limited number of persons might have religious or personal objections to vaccinations. Others wish to enter into a contract for certain vaccines. Having a basic understanding of how patients view vaccine risk and developing effective approaches in dealing with these concerns is imperative for vaccination providers.

Each person understands and reacts to vaccine information on the basis of different factors, including prior experience, education, cultural presentation, perceptions of the risk for disease, perceived ability to control those risks, and their risk preference. Increasingly, decisions regarding risk are based on inaccurate information. Only through direct dialogue with parents and by using a variety of media to prevent acceptance of media reports and information from nonauthoritative Internet sites as scientific fact.

When a parent or patient initiates discussion regarding a vaccine controversy, the health-care professional should discuss the information, using language that is appropriate. Effective, empathetic vaccine risk communication is essential in responding to these concerns. Recognizing that for certain persons, risk assessment and decision-making is difficult and confusing. Certain vaccines might be contraindicated for certain persons should then be addressed in the context of this information, using the Vaccine Information Statements and offering additional information available on the National Immunization Program website).

Although a limited number of providers might choose to exclude from their practice those patients who question or refuse va

strategy is to identify common ground and discuss measures that need to be followed if the patient's decision is to defer vaccine points regarding each vaccine, including safety, and emphasize risks encountered by unimmunized children. Parents should be advised of child care entry, which might require that unimmunized children stay home from school during outbreaks. Documentation of including the refusal to receive certain vaccines (i.e., informed refusal), might reduce any potential liability if a vaccine-preventable patient.

## Vaccination Programs

The best way to reduce vaccine-preventable diseases is to have a highly immune population. Universal vaccination is a critical goal accomplished through routine and intensive vaccination programs implemented in physicians' offices and in public health clinics maintained in all communities to ensure vaccination of all children at the recommended age. In addition, appropriate vaccination programs for adults.

Physicians and other pediatric vaccination providers should adhere to the standards for child and adolescent immunization practices for both the public and private sectors. The standards provide guidance on practices that will result in effective vaccination practices aimed at eliminating unnecessary prerequisites for receiving vaccinations, eliminating missed opportunities to vaccinate, enhancing knowledge regarding vaccinations among parents and providers, and improving the management and reporting of vaccine reactions. Standards of practice also have been published to increase vaccination coverage among adults (2). Persons aged  $\geq 65$  years and persons at risk for pneumococcal disease should receive  $\geq 1$  doses of pneumococcal polysaccharide vaccine. All persons aged  $\geq 65$  years and persons at risk for complications from influenza should receive annual influenza vaccination. All adults should complete a primary vaccination series and receive a booster dose every 10 years. Adult vaccination programs also should provide MMR and varicella vaccines when appropriate. Persons born after 1956 who are attending college (or other posthigh school educational institution) should receive two doses of MMR on or after their first birthday or other evidence of immunity (6,173). All other adults born after 1956 should receive MMR vaccine on or after their first birthday or have other evidence of immunity. No evidence indicates that administering MMR vaccine to persons who are already immune to measles, mumps, or rubella as a result of previous vaccination or disease is harmful. MMR vaccine is encouraged for all persons who might be at increased risk (e.g., adolescents and adults who are either in a group at high risk for exposure to measles, drug use, teenage pregnancy, or sexually transmitted disease).

Every visit to a physician or other health-care provider can be an opportunity to update a patient's immunization status with necessary steps, including developing and enforcing school immunization requirements, to ensure that students at child care centers are protected against vaccine-preventable diseases. Agencies also should encourage institutions (e.g., hospitals, long-term care facilities) to encourage the appropriate vaccination of patients, residents, and employees (173).

Dates of vaccination (day, month, and year) should be recorded on institutional immunization records (e.g., those kept in school health records) to facilitate assessments that a primary vaccination series has been completed according to an appropriate schedule and that need for booster doses is at an appropriate time.

The independent, nonfederal Task Force on Community Preventive Services (the Task Force) gives public health decision-makers recommendations regarding effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of these interventions. In addition, the Task Force identifies critical information regarding effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of these interventions. In addition, the Task Force identifies critical information regarding effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of these interventions, as well as the applicability to specific populations and settings and the potential barriers to implementation. The Task Force's recommendations are available at <http://www.thecommunityguide.org> (accessed November 7, 2001).

Beginning in 1996, the Task Force systematically reviewed published evidence on the effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of interventions to increase coverage of vaccines recommended for routine use among children, adolescents, and adults. A total of 197 articles were identified based on inclusion criteria, and were published during 1980--1997. Reviews of 17 specific interventions were published in 1999 (174). The Task Force made recommendations regarding the use of these interventions (177). A number of interventions were identified and reviewed. The interventions and the recommendations are summarized in this report (Table 7).

## Vaccine Information Sources

In addition to these general recommendations, other sources are available that contain specific and updated vaccine information.

### National Immunization Information Hotline

The National Immunization Information Hotline is supported by CDC's National Immunization Program and provides vaccine information to the public, 8:00 am--11:00 pm, Monday--Friday:

Telephone (English): 800-232-2522

Telephone (Spanish): 800-232-0233

Telephone (TTY): 800-243-7889

Internet: <http://www.ashastd.org> (accessed November 7, 2001)

### CDC's National Immunization Program

CDC's National Immunization Program website provides direct access to immunization recommendations of the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices, vaccination schedules, vaccine safety information, publications, provider education and training, and links to other immunization resources. <http://www.cdc.gov/nip> (accessed November 7, 2001).

### ***Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report***

ACIP recommendations regarding vaccine use, statements of vaccine policy as they are developed, and reports of specific diseases are published in the *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report (MMWR)* series. Electronic subscriptions are free and available at <http://www.cdc.gov/mmwr>. Printed subscriptions are available at

Superintendent of Documents  
U.S. Government Printing Office  
Washington, D.C. 20402-9235

### **American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP)**

Every 3 years, AAP issues the *Red Book: Report of the Committee on Infectious Diseases*, which contains a composite summary of infectious diseases and immunizations for infants, children, and adolescents.

Telephone: 888-227-1770  
Internet: <http://www.aap.org> (accessed November 7, 2001)

### **American Academy of Family Physicians (AAFP)**

Information from the professional organization of family physicians is available at <http://www.aafp.org> (accessed November 7, 2001).

### **Immunization Action Coalition**

This source provides extensive free provider and patient information, including translations of Vaccine Information Statements. It is available at <http://www.immunize.org> (accessed November 7, 2001).

### **National Network for Immunization Information**

This information source is provided by the Infectious Diseases Society of America, Pediatric Infectious Diseases Society, and other professional organizations. It provides objective, science-based information regarding vaccines for the public and providers. <http://www.immunizationinfo.org> (accessed November 7, 2001).

### **Vaccine Education Center**

Located at the Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, this source provides patient and provider information. The Internet address is <http://www.vaccineeducationcenter.org> (accessed November 7, 2001).

### **Institute for Vaccine Safety**

Located at Johns Hopkins University School of Public Health, this source provides information regarding vaccine safety concerns for health-care providers and parents. It is available at <http://www.vaccinesafety.edu> (accessed November 7, 2001).

### **National Partnership for Immunization**

This national organization encourages greater acceptance and use of vaccinations for all ages through partnerships with public health departments. Its Internet address is <http://www.partnersforimmunization.org> (accessed November 7, 2001).

### **State and Local Health Departments**

State and local health departments provide technical advice through hotlines, electronic mail, and Internet sites, including providing information on immunization schedules, posters, and other educational materials.

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\* During measles outbreaks, if cases are occurring among infants aged <12 months, measles vaccination of infants as young as 6 months can be undertaken as an outbreak control measure. However, such cases should not be counted as part of the series (Source: CDC. Measles, mumps, and rubella vaccine use and strategies for elimination of measles, rubella, and congenital rubella infection. *MMWR* 1998;47[No. RR-8]:157).

† In certain situations, local or state requirements might mandate that doses of selected vaccines be administered on or after specific ages. For example, a school entry requirement might mandate that a child receive a dose of measles-mumps-rubella vaccine before the child's first birthday. ACIP recommends that physicians and other health-care providers comply with local or state vaccination requirements when appropriate.

‡ The exception is the two-dose hepatitis B vaccination series for adolescents aged 11-15 years. Only Recombivax HB® (Merck Vaccine Division) should be used in this age group.

§ Internet sites with device listings are identified for information purposes only. CDC, the U.S. Public Health Service, and the Department of Health and Human Services would all satisfy the needle-stick prevention regulations.

\*\* Toxin neutralization testing is reliable but not readily available. Enzyme immunoassay tests are the most readily available, although passive hemagglutination is available for performing the test for interpretive standards and limitations. Protective concentrations for diphtheria are defined as  $\geq 0.1$  IU/mL and for tetanus as  $\geq 0.10.2$  IU/mL.

†† As defined by a low age-specific total CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocyte count or a low CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocyte count as a percentage of total lymphocytes. ACIP recommendations for criteria for severe immunosuppression in persons with HIV infection (**Source:** CDC. Measles, mumps, and rubella vaccine use and strategies for elimination of measles and mumps: recommendations of the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices [ACIP]. MMWR 1998;47[No. RR-8]:157).

§§ As of January 2002, vaccines covered by the act include diphtheria, tetanus, pertussis, measles, mumps, rubella, poliovirus, hepatitis B, Hib, varicella, and pneumococcal polysaccharide vaccine.

¶¶ The Vaccine Injury Table can be obtained from the Vaccine Injury Compensation Program Internet site at <<http://www.hrsa.dhhs.gov/bhpr/vicp/table.htm>> (accessed 1/2/02).

\*\*\* Standards for pediatric, adolescent, and adult immunization practices are being revised and will be posted on CDC's National Immunization Program Internet site as they become available.

## Abbreviations Used in This Publication

AAFP	American Academy of Family Physicians
AAP	American Academy of Pediatrics
ACIP	Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices
DT	pediatric diphtheria-tetanus toxoid
DTaP	diphtheria and tetanus toxoids and acellular pertussis vaccine
DTP	diphtheria and tetanus toxoids and whole-cell pertussis vaccine
EIA/ELISA	enzyme immunoassay
FDA	Food and Drug Administration
GBS	Guillain-Barré syndrome
HBIG	hepatitis B immune globulin
HbOC	diphtheria CRM <sub>197</sub> (CRM, cross-reactive material) protein conjugate
HBsAg	hepatitis B surface antigen
Hib	<i>Haemophilus influenzae</i> type b
HIV	human immunodeficiency virus
HSCT	hematopoietic stem cell transplant
IgG	immunoglobulin G
IGIV	intravenous immune globulin
IPV	inactivated poliovirus vaccine
JI	jet injectors
MMR	measles, mumps, rubella vaccine
OPV	oral poliovirus vaccine
OSHA	Occupational Safety and Health Administration
PCV	pneumococcal conjugate vaccine

PPD	purified protein derivative
PRP-OMP	polyribosylribitol phosphate-meningococcal outer membrane protein
PRP-T	PRP-tetanus
PPV	pneumococcal polysaccharide vaccine
Td	adult tetanus-diphtheria toxoid
VAERS	Vaccine Adverse Event Reporting System
VAPP	vaccine-associated paralytic polio

## Definitions Used in This Report

**Adverse event.** An untoward event that occurs after a vaccination that might be caused by the vaccine product or vaccination induced: caused by the intrinsic characteristic of the vaccine preparation and the individual response of the vaccinee; these events include: 1) vaccine-associated: caused by the vaccine (e.g., vaccine-associated paralytic poliomyelitis); 2) vaccine-potentiated: would have occurred anyway, but were not because of the vaccine (e.g., seizure in a predisposed child); 3) programmatic error: caused by technical errors in vaccine preparation, handling, or administration with vaccination by chance or caused by underlying illness. Special studies are needed to determine if an adverse event is a result of the vaccine. See Chen RT. Special methodological issues in pharmacoepidemiology studies of vaccine safety. In: Strom BL, ed. *Pharmacoepidemiology*. Philadelphia: JB Lippincott & Sons, 2000:707--32; and Fenichel GM, Lane DA, Livengood JR, Horwitz SJ, Menkes JH, Schwartz JF. Adverse events following vaccination: a review of causation. *Pediatr Neurol* 1989;5:287--90).

**Adverse reaction.** An undesirable medical condition that has been demonstrated to be caused by a vaccine. Evidence for the causation is derived from randomized clinical trials, controlled epidemiologic studies, isolation of the vaccine strain from the pathogenic site, or recurrence (i.e., rechallenge); synonyms include side effect and adverse effect).

**Immunobiologic.** Antigenic substances (e.g., vaccines and toxoids) or antibody-containing preparations (e.g., globulins and antitoxins). Immunobiologics are used for active or passive immunization or therapy. The following are examples of immunobiologics:

**Vaccine.** A suspension of live (usually attenuated) or inactivated microorganisms (e.g., bacteria or viruses) or fractions of microorganisms that stimulate immunity and prevent infectious disease or its sequelae. Some vaccines contain highly defined antigens (e.g., the polysaccharide type b or the surface antigen of hepatitis B); others have antigens that are complex or incompletely defined (e.g., killed or attenuated viruses).

**Toxoid.** A modified bacterial toxin that has been made nontoxic, but retains the ability to stimulate the formation of antibodies.

**Immune globulin.** A sterile solution containing antibodies, which are usually obtained from human blood. It is obtained from large pools of blood plasma and contains 15%--18% protein. Intended for intramuscular administration, immune globulin is used for maintenance of immunity among certain immunodeficient persons and for passive protection against measles and hepatitis.

**Intravenous immune globulin.** A product derived from blood plasma from a donor pool similar to the immune globulin but suitable for intravenous use. Intravenous immune globulin is used primarily for replacement therapy in primary antibody deficiency, Kawasaki disease, immune thrombocytopenic purpura, hypogammaglobulinemia in chronic lymphocytic leukemia, and immunodeficiency virus infection ([Table 2](#)).

**Hyperimmune globulin (specific).** Special preparations obtained from blood plasma from donor pools preselected for high titer of specific antigen (e.g., hepatitis B immune globulin, varicella-zoster immune globulin, rabies immune globulin, tetanus immune globulin, cytomegalovirus immune globulin, respiratory syncytial virus immune globulin, botulism immune globulin).

**Monoclonal antibody.** An antibody product prepared from a single lymphocyte clone, which contains only antibody of one specificity.

**Antitoxin.** A solution of antibodies against a toxin. Antitoxin can be derived from either human (e.g., tetanus antitoxin) or nonhuman (e.g., diphtheria and botulism antitoxin). Antitoxins are used to confer passive immunity and for treatment.

**Vaccination and Immunization.** The terms *vaccine* and *vaccination* are derived from *vacca*, the Latin term for cow. *Vaccine* is the material used (i.e., cowpox virus) to produce immunity to smallpox. The term *vaccination* was used by Louis Pasteur in the 19th century to describe administering any vaccine or toxoid. *Immunization* is a more inclusive term, denoting the process of inducing or providing immunity. Immunization can be active or passive. *Active immunization* is the production of antibody or other immune responses through the administration of antigen. *Passive immunization* means the provision of temporary immunity by the administration of preformed antibodies. Four types of immunization: 1) pooled human immune globulin or intravenous immune globulin, 2) hyperimmune globulin (specific) preparation, 3) antitoxins from nonhuman sources, and 4) antitoxins from nonhuman sources. Although persons often use the terms *vaccination* and *immunization* interchangeably, they are not synonymous because the administration of an immunobiologic cannot be equated automatically with development of immunity.

**Table 1**





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